

## A BASIS FOR THE LAWS OF $\text{PSL}(2,5)$

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**1. Introduction.** Although it is known that there is a finite basis for the laws of any finite group (Sheila Oates and M. B. Powell [6]), it is not in general an easy matter to find an explicit basis for the laws of a given finite group. Indeed, the set of laws given below is, as far as we know, the only explicit basis known for the laws of a finite non-abelian simple group.

Before writing down the basis we define the law  $u_n$  introduced by L. G. Kovács and M. F. Newman [4]:

$$u_3 = [(x_1^{-1} x_2)^{x_{1,2}}, (x_1^{-1} x_3)^{x_{1,3}}, (x_2^{-1} x_3)^{x_{2,3}}]$$

and, for  $n > 3$ ,

$$u_n = [u_{n-1}, (x_1^{-1} x_n)^{x_{1,n}}, \dots, (x_{n-1}^{-1} x_n)^{x_{n-1,n}}].$$

**THEOREM A.** *The set of laws (1)–(7) given below is a basis for the laws of  $\text{PSL}(2, 5)$ , the simple group of order 60.*

- (1)  $x^{30} = 1$
- (2)  $\{(x^{10}y^{10})^6[x^{10}, y^{10}]^2\}^5 = 1$
- (3)  $\{((x^6y^{12})^5(x^6y^{18})^5)^3[x^6, y^6]^6\}^6 = 1$
- (4)  $[x^3, y^3]^{15} = 1$
- (5)  $\{[x^6y^{10}x^{-6}, y^{-10}][y^{10}, x^6]\}^{10} = 1$
- (6)  $\{[y^{10}x^6y^{-10}, x^{-6}][y^{10}, x^6]^2\}^6 = 1$
- (7)  $u_{61} = 1$ .

It can be verified by direct calculation that  $\text{PSL}(2, 5)$  satisfies these laws, so it is sufficient to prove that the variety  $\mathfrak{B}$  defined by these laws is contained in the variety  $\mathfrak{B}_0$  generated by  $\text{PSL}(2, 5)$ .

**2. Notation.** In notation and terminology we will follow the book of Hanna Neumann [5]; we will also assume familiarity with the results of Chapters 1 and 5 of this book.

### 3. Finite soluble groups in $\mathfrak{B}$ .

**LEMMA 3.1.** *Groups in  $\mathfrak{B}$  of prime-power order are elementary abelian.*

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PROOF. Law (1) shows that groups whose orders are powers of 2 are elementary abelian, and that those whose orders are powers of 3 or 5 have exponent 3 or 5 respectively.

Law (2) shows that the commutator of two elements in the same 3-group has order 10, and hence, since it certainly has order 3, it is trivial, and the group is abelian.

Law (3) gives the corresponding result for 5-groups.

LEMMA 3.2. *An element of order  $p$  which belongs to the normalizer of a  $q$ -subgroup of a group in  $\mathfrak{B}$  belongs to its centralizer if  $p$  and  $q$  take the values 5 and 2, 5 and 3, or 3 and 5.*

PROOF. This follows from laws (4), (5) and (6). Consider, for instance, law (5). If  $y$  is an element of a 3-subgroup and  $x$  an element of order 5 in its normalizer, then the first factor in the law vanishes and we are left with  $[y, x]^{10} = 1$ ; but certainly  $[y, x]^3 = 1$  and so  $[y, x] = 1$ , as required.

THEOREM 3.3. *A critical soluble group in  $\mathfrak{B}$  belongs to  $\mathfrak{A}_2\mathfrak{A}_3$ ,  $\mathfrak{A}_3\mathfrak{A}_2$  or  $\mathfrak{A}_5\mathfrak{A}_2$ .*

PROOF. Let  $G$  be a critical soluble group in  $\mathfrak{B}$ . Since all its Sylow subgroups are elementary abelian, by Theorem 1.2.6 of P. Hall and G. Higman [2],  $G$  has  $p$ -length 1 for all primes  $p$ . Consider in particular, its upper 5-series. This has the form

$$1 = P_0 \leq N_0 \leq P_1 \leq N_1 = G,$$

where  $N_0$  and  $N_1/P_1$  are groups of order prime to 5 and  $P_1/N_0$  is a 5-group. If  $S$  is the Sylow 5-group of  $P_1$  then, by Lemma 3.2,  $S \leq C_G(N_0)$  and so, since  $P_1 = N_0S$ ,  $P_1 = N_0 \times S$ . But  $S$  is characteristic in  $P_1$  and hence normal in  $G$  and has trivial intersection with  $N_0$  which is also normal in  $G$ . Since  $G$  is critical we must have  $N_0 = 1$  or  $S = 1$ .

(i)  $N_0 = 1$ . Then  $P_1$  is a normal Sylow 5-subgroup of  $G$ . If  $|G|$  were divisible by 3, then, by Lemma 3.2, there would be elements outside  $P_1$  which centralized  $P_1$ , and this is impossible by Lemma 1.2.3 of [2]. Thus  $G/P_1$  has order a power of 2, and hence, since both  $G/P_1$  and  $P_1$  are elementary abelian,  $G \in \mathfrak{A}_5\mathfrak{A}_2$ .

(ii)  $P_1 = 1$ . Then the order of  $G$  is divisible only by powers of 2 and 3, and, since  $G$  is critical, it cannot possess both a nontrivial normal 2-subgroup and a nontrivial normal 3-subgroup. If  $G$  has no nontrivial normal 2-subgroup then its upper 3-series is

$$1 = P_0 = N_0 < P_1 \leq N_1 = G$$

where  $P_1$  is a 3-group and  $G/N_1$  a 2-group. Hence  $G \in \mathfrak{A}_3\mathfrak{A}_2$ . An analo-

gous argument shows that if  $G$  has no nontrivial normal 3-subgroup then  $G \in \mathfrak{A}_2\mathfrak{A}_3$ .

**COROLLARY 3.4.** *Finite soluble groups in  $\mathfrak{B}$  belong to  $\mathfrak{B}_0$ .*

**PROOF.** By Corollary 4.2.4 of P. J. Cossey [1],  $\mathfrak{A}_5\mathfrak{A}_2$ ,  $\mathfrak{A}_3\mathfrak{A}_2$  and  $\mathfrak{A}_2\mathfrak{A}_3$  are generated, respectively, by the dihedral groups of orders 10 and 6, and the alternating group on 4 letters. Since these are all subgroups of  $\text{PSL}(2, 5)$  the varieties  $\mathfrak{A}_5\mathfrak{A}_2$ ,  $\mathfrak{A}_3\mathfrak{A}_2$  and  $\mathfrak{A}_2\mathfrak{A}_3$  are subvarieties of  $\mathfrak{B}_0$ . Thus all critical soluble groups in  $\mathfrak{B}$  are in  $\mathfrak{B}_0$ , and, by induction on the order, we see that any finite soluble group in  $\mathfrak{B}$  is in  $\mathfrak{B}_0$ .

#### 4. Finite nonsoluble groups in $\mathfrak{B}$ .

**LEMMA 4.1.** *The only nonabelian simple group in  $\mathfrak{B}$  is  $\text{PSL}(2, 5)$ .*

**PROOF.** By (4.4) of L. G. Kovács and M. F. Newman [4], the law  $u_{61} = 1$  implies that, for any group in  $\mathfrak{B}$ , the index of the centralizer of a chief factor cannot exceed 60, and hence any nonabelian simple group in  $\mathfrak{B}$  has order  $\leq 60$ . Since  $\text{PSL}(2, 5)$  is the only simple group with this property the result follows.

**THEOREM 4.2.** *Every finite group in  $\mathfrak{B}$  is of the form*

$$A_1 \times \cdots \times A_r \times S$$

where  $A_i \simeq \text{PSL}(2, 5)$  ( $i = 1, \dots, r$ ) and  $S$  is soluble.

**PROOF.** Suppose not, and let  $G$  be a minimal counterexample, then  $G$  is certainly critical and not soluble. We have two cases to consider, according as the monolith  $\sigma G$  of  $G$  is abelian or nonabelian.

(i)  $\sigma G$  nonabelian. Then  $\sigma G$  is a direct product of groups isomorphic to  $\text{PSL}(2, 5)$  and the centralizer of  $\sigma G$  in  $G$  is 1. Hence  $G$  is an automorphism group of  $\sigma G$  and so has the form

$$1 \leq K \leq G$$

where  $K$  is a direct product of groups isomorphic to either  $\text{PSL}(2, 5)$  or  $S_5$  (the symmetric group on 5 letters) and  $G/K$  acts as a transitive permutation group on the direct factors of  $K$ . Because of the exponent law,  $S_5$  cannot occur, and so  $K$  is a direct product of groups isomorphic to  $\text{PSL}(2, 5)$  and it follows that  $K = \sigma G$ . If  $G/K \neq 1$ , there is an element of prime power order acting nontrivially on  $\sigma G$  and so  $G$  would not have abelian Sylow subgroups. We deduce that  $G = K \simeq \text{PSL}(2, 5)$ .

(ii)  $\sigma G$  abelian. By the minimality of  $G$ ,  $G/\sigma(G)$  is a direct product in which at least one factor isomorphic to  $\text{PSL}(2, 5)$  occurs (since  $G$

is not soluble). Suppose  $G/\sigma(G) = H_1/\sigma(G) \times H_2/\sigma(G)$  where  $H_1/\sigma(G) \simeq \text{PSL}(2, 5)$  and  $H_2 > \sigma(G)$ . Then  $H_1 < G$  and so is of the form  $K_1 \times \sigma(G)$  where  $K_1 \simeq \text{PSL}(2, 5)$ . Thus  $K_1$  induces automorphisms of  $H_2$  which are trivial on  $\sigma(G)$  and on  $H_2/\sigma(G)$ . But any two such automorphisms commute, and, since the only abelian factor group of  $K_1$  is the trivial group, it follows that  $K_1$  centralizes  $H_2$ . Thus  $G = K_1 \times H_2$  is not critical. Hence we must have  $H_1 = G$ , i.e.  $G/\sigma(G) \simeq \text{PSL}(2, 5)$ . Now  $\sigma G$  is a  $p$ -group for  $p \in \{2, 3, 5\}$  and, if it were not central in  $G$ , then  $G$  would have non-abelian  $p$ -subgroups. But, if  $\sigma G$  were central in  $G$ , then, since  $G' \neq 1$ ,  $\sigma G \leq G' \cap Z(G)$  which is 1 for a group with abelian Sylow subgroups by 3.2 of B. Huppert [3]; so again we have a contradiction.

COROLLARY 4.3. *Finite groups in  $\mathfrak{B}$  are in  $\mathfrak{B}_0$ .*

5. **Proof of Theorem A.** Since we have shown that finite groups in  $\mathfrak{B}$  are in  $\mathfrak{B}_0$ , the proof of Theorem A will be complete if we can show that  $\mathfrak{B}$  is locally finite, since a variety is determined by its finitely generated groups. Now, the finite groups in  $\mathfrak{B}$  on a fixed number of generators have bounded order, and so, if  $\mathfrak{B}$  were not locally finite it would contain a nonabelian infinite simple group, contradicting Lemma 4.1.

6. **Remarks.** We have avoided the use of (7) whenever possible, for the reason that we would like to delete it or at least replace it by a set of laws involving only a small number of variables. This however we have been unable to do. We have used it to show that  $\text{PSL}(2, 5)$  is the only nonabelian finite simple group in  $\mathfrak{B}$ : this could have been avoided by appealing to the (unpublished) classification of simple groups all of whose Sylow subgroups are abelian. This still leaves the problem of local finiteness of  $\mathfrak{B}$ . Using arguments similar to those of §3.3 of [6] we can show that there is a set of 5 variable laws which imply local finiteness; we have not been able to find such a set explicitly, however.

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## CONTINUITY OF THE VARISOLVENT CHEBYSHEV OPERATOR

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In this note we show that the Chebyshev operator  $T$  is continuous at all functions whose best approximations are of maximum degree. Let  $F$  be an approximating function unisolvent of variable degree on an interval  $[\alpha, \beta]$  and let the maximum degree of  $F$  be  $n$ . Let  $P$  be the parameter space of  $F$ . All functions considered will be continuous and for such functions we define the norm

$$\|g\| = \max \{ |g(x)| : \alpha \leq x \leq \beta \}.$$

The Chebyshev problem is, for a given continuous function  $f$ , to find an element  $T(f) = F(A^*, \cdot)$ ,  $A^* \in P$ , for which

$$\rho(f) = \inf \{ \|f - F(A, \cdot)\| : A \in P \}$$

is attained. Such an element  $T(f)$  is called a best Chebyshev approximation to  $f$  on  $[\alpha, \beta]$ .  $T(f)$  can fail to exist, but is unique and characterized by alternation if it exists. Definitions and theory are given in [1].

LEMMA 1. Let  $F(A, \cdot)$  be the best approximation to  $f$  and  $F$  have degree  $n$  at  $A$ . Let  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  be an ordered set of points on which  $f - F(A, \cdot)$  alternates  $n$  times. If  $\|f - g\| < \delta$  and  $\|g - F(B, \cdot)\| \leq \rho(g) + \delta$  then

$$(1) \quad (-1)^i [F(B, x_i) - F(A, x_i)] \operatorname{sgn}(f(x_0) - F(A, x_0)) \geq -3\delta, \\ i = 0, \dots, n.$$

The lemma can be obtained using arguments similar to those of Rice [2, p. 63].

LEMMA 2. Let  $F$  be of degree  $n$  (maximal) at  $A$  then for given  $\delta > 0$